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ROLE TRANSITION IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

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ROLE TRANSITIONS IN ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT IS PRESENTED IN TERMS OF THE TECHNICAL, SOCIAL, AND DIRECTIVE ROLE ELEMENTS FOUND IN TWO STUDIES OF MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOR AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT. THE INDIVIDUAL'S LIFE SPACE IS THE BASIC FORMULATION OF THIS IDEA. THAT IS, MAJOR CHANGES IN THE CONFIGURATION OF THE INDIVIDUAL'S INTERPERSONAL NETWORK CONSTITUTE ROLE TRANSITION. TECHNICAL, SOCIAL, AND DIRECTIVE ROLE PERFORMANCE ARE THREE DIMENSIONS OF MANAGERIAL BEHAVIOR. THE MANNER IN WHICH THE INDIVIDUAL RESOLVES POTENTIAL CONFLICT AMONG THESE THREE ROLES, EITHER BY INTEGRATION, POLARIZATION, OR WITHDRAWL, IS RELATED TO HIS OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS IN THE JOB. THE MORE EFFECTIVE CAREER IS MARKED BY ROLE TRANSITION EMBRACING ALL THREE COMPONENTS. SOCIAL, TECHNICAL, AND DIRECTIVE ROLE PERFORMANCE ALSO REFLECTS A NATURAL SEQUENCE OF INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP DEVELOPMENT OVER TIME. THIS PAPER WAS READ AT THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION MEETING (WASHINGTON, D.C., SEPTEMBER 2, 1967). (CG)

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HARVARD STUDIES IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT No. 57

ROLE TRANSITION IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

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ROLE TRANSITION IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

David Moment

General knowledge of adult personality development has much to gain from studies of the variety of informal field experiments effecting human development which are carried out in the routine practice of management development in organizations. Such studies can help us fill in some detail about what happens in adults' lives during the years from the late twenties to the late fifties, a span of the life cycle too often simply categorized as adulthood. For most of the population, these years are spent outside the walls of the public institutions where most of our research subjects are studied in their dependent states as children, students, patients, inmates, or wards of the state.

The phases and processes of child development have been schematized by such varied approaches as those of Freud and Gesell, and the crises of adolescence have been detailed by Erikson and others. We need more detailed maps of the processes and phases of continuing development during the adult years. The study and practice of Managerial Development can contribute something to this need, as well as make use of improved understandings of adult development.

Problems and processes of role transition are central in the studies of managerial work-styles and career development with which I have been engaged over the last several years.[1] The dilemma of career specialization versus generalization takes on a different character when viewed from the

perspective of role transitions. This dichotomy dissolves in a more accurate picture of successive masteries of developmental tasks in career, which are intimately related to changes in interpersonal networks. The social-psychology of human development during the adult years, and of the development of professional competences in work, can be viewed as the developmental aspects of the process of role transition. The purpose of this paper is to contribute to a theoretical model of adult career development, based on existing theories of personality development and the empirical results of my own research work and that of many others. The concept of a changing network of object relationships in the individual's life space is the basic formulation in this set of ideas.

The Network of Object Relationships

The changing life space of the individual may be described in terms of his psychological relationships--emotional investments and cognitive attitudes--to specific people, things, and ideas within his personal psychological world. His objective interpersonal network at any one point in time constitutes what Kahn and his colleagues have called his role set;[2] a web-like structure with the focal person at the center, and strands of relationships running from him to other people, who are in turn connected to each other in the role network. While this network is by definition interpersonal, it also represents derivatives of the person's emotional investments in impersonal things and ideas.

To illustrate, consider the extreme stereotype of the solitary scientist or artist, who sees himself as a loner devoid of interpersonal relations surrounding his intimate relationships with his work-objects, his

ideas, and his materials. The objective fact is that he has established a dependency relationship with some person or agency--his sponsors--which free him at least temporarily from the constant demands of others in his work. He also has interdependency relationships with the suppliers of his materials and the world of knowledge related to his work. In his case, this network has little psychological relevance to the person; perturbations in it are experienced as frustrations to the main line of his life experience, rather than as manifestations of problems to be solved by him using work-related competences.

The opposite extreme, along a dimension representing the experienced career-relevance of the network, is the stereotype of the manager. His work consists primarily of his conscious, problem-solving proactions and reactions within his interpersonal network, while his relationships with things and ideas, although relevant to the substantive content of his work, recede into the background of his experiences of career-relevant objects and relationships. While the reputedly creative careers appear to involve an anaesthetic non-sensitivity to interpersonal networks, managerial careers involve a hyper-sensitive experiencing of work-related interpersonal relations. However, it is important to note that the networks exist in some form regardless of the manner in which their salience is experienced by the focal person. The relative salience to the individual of the various objects in his network constitute what I have called "orientations to work" in an earlier paper.[3]

Each relationship in the interpersonal network, which is one subset of the network of all object relationships, can be characterized in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Interactions may be content-classified

and counted, and although more difficult to make operational, each relationship may be described in terms of its emotional meaning to both parties, in such terms as dependency-nurturance, dominance-submissiveness, affection-hostility, competition-cooperation, and so forth. Major changes in the configuration of the individual's interpersonal network constitute what I call a role transition.

To illustrate further what I mean, in terms which can easily connect to existing social-psychological theories of human development, consider two kinds of role transition sequences, one with regard to sex and age roles, the other with regard to work roles in organizations and society. In the human development sequence, the person moves from infant to child to adolescent to young adult, from family membership to peer-group membership, from dating companion to sex partner to parent, from a dependent in the community to a tax-paying participant in the community, and perhaps on to leadership roles in the community. Each of these changes involves observable and measureable changes in the individual's interpersonal network.

In the individual's work roles, he may move from subordinate and apprentice, to peer and work colleague, to superior and leader. A great deal more subtle and complex than these changes are changes in the personal salience of things, people, and ideas in his life space, changes in the orientations toward work and other activities in the individual's life space.[4] In his surrounding social space, the bases of his value to others may change from that of individual technical contributor, to co-operative socio-technical contributor, to generative influencer of the careers of others. These represent, of course, an idealized sequence of career and

personality development, suggested both by conventional views of career success and by the work of personality theorists, especially suggested by Robert White's description of growth trends in personality development[5] and Erik Erikson's crises of development.[6]

Role transitions are closely related to, but not necessarily a result of, changes in group membership. Lloyd Warner describes the mobile executive as continuously experiencing departures and arrivals, from one group to another.[7] Purely lateral career movements would not necessarily involve role transition; only the encumbents would change, not necessarily the dynamics of the role relationships. However, this is extremely unlikely in reality, since no two groups are identical in structure and dynamics; even those in interchangeable roles such as military commanders have to change role behaviors when they change to different military units. Warner's arrivals and departures involve not only generalized group memberships, but clear role transitions as well, where a man may leave one group as a colleague to arrive in a potential leadership role in another group.

Having described what I mean by role transitions in life and career, in terms which I think can be made operational in research, education, and training, I will move on to discussing some more specific aspects of role transitions in professional and managerial careers, which have been identified in the studies with which I have been involved.

Interpersonal Networks and Major Role Functions

Certain kinds of interpersonal network patterns may be characterized by their inclusion or exclusion of organizationally meaningful categories

of other people. In the bank we studied, for example, some officers were "inside men," in that their interaction networks at work tended to be limited to people inside the organization. In contrast, most loan officers were "outside men," in that their interaction networks included clients outside the organization. Similarly, the generic terms technician, staff man, or administrator describe roles in organizational terms, which may be distinguished operationally one from the others by their characteristic interpersonal networks.[8]

In addition to these role definitions based on descriptions of the individual's external social relationships, we found in clinical interviews that managers and professionals tended to hold highly personalized definitions of their work roles. The "main line" of a man's work was defined by him to include and exclude certain kinds of relationships to people, things, and ideas, and involved an emotional attitude toward these classes of objects and toward specific elements within them. A female department store buyer, for example, characterized herself as "earthy;" she liked to spend time on the selling floor, handling the merchandise and interacting with customers and salespeople. Other buyers, in contrast, spent most of their time in their offices working on paper work, sales forecasts, planning schedules, and so on. To them, their role was more analytical and impersonal; even their merchandise tended to be experienced as abstractions, rather than real things that the "earthy" buyer would touch, smell, and feel.

The data presented in the Appendix Tables 1 and 2 illustrate quantitatively differences in orientations among age groups and between the most

highly rated managers in two job groups in the department store we studied. Over all 89 managers, from all kinds of jobs in the store, the mean orientation toward "things" as work-objects decreased significantly from the middle age group, 36 to 52 years, to the older age group, while the orientation toward people increased between these two age groups. Of even more striking statistical significance, shown on Table 2, was the finding that the most highly rated buyers, regardless of age, tended overwhelmingly to indicate a "systems" ("ideas") orientation in their work, while indicating even less of a "people" orientation than a "thing" orientation. The most highly rated line managers, in contrast, were extremely high on "people" orientation and extremely low on the "systems" ("ideas") orientation. These strikingly different orientations represent not only differences in role definitions, but also reflect the organization's problems in bringing buyers and line operating people into cooperative working relations with each other.

The thinking which led to these quantitative findings, which confirmed and illuminated what we found in our interviews with the managers, originated in our earlier work on role specialization in small discussion groups.[9] We hypothesized that the dynamics of role specialization as it occurs in the family and the small work group would also be present in adults' working careers in their organizations and communities. Our attention to the process of role transition in career development elaborated further in this direction of inquiry.

Abraham Zaleznik has described three distinctly different classes of executive functions or roles in organizations, as a result of his own analysis and some of the work we have done together.[10] From the point of

view of sociological analysis, he sees the manager involved in 1) helping to maintain the internal continuity and stability of the organization, in 2) attempting to modify the behavior of people in the organization to adapt to environmental changes, and in 3) acting upon the environment in order to change it to utilize the organization's resources. He relates these social functions, which he calls homeostatic, mediative, and proactive, to psychological predispositions within particular individuals which make it easier or more difficult for them to engage in one or another of these functions, or combinations of them. He sees person-oriented individuals as primarily attempting to engage in homeostatic activities, idea-oriented persons as congenial toward proactive functions, while individuals who can fuse both objects--ideas and people--into a common work orientation, could handle the mediative functions, akin to the "general administrator" ideal. Zaleznik tended to view personal predispositions to assume these functions as relatively fixed for a person over his life. In contrast, I have been concentrating on the ways they may change over an individual's life in the development of his career.

Using Zaleznik's ideas in our study of bank officers and department store managers we found that the dichotomy--people versus ideas as objects of work--empirically expanded to two independent dimensions. One was purely interpersonal and had to do with the individual's emotional orientation to others; trusting, emotional closeness on the one hand and skeptical, emotional distance on the other. The second dimension was closer to the original ideas versus people dichotomy--it was more cognitive in nature and was concerned with the degree to which social skills as against technical skills were recognized as useful by the individual in his work. A man

might see social skills as the major element in his work role, but still be emotionally cool, distant, and skeptical toward people in his behavior.

This distinction illuminates a problem which has accompanied human relations and leadership training over the years. We saw quite clearly, from these results, that social behaviors are not exclusively concerned with the sympathetic, trusting, understanding, accepting modes of interpersonal relations. Social behaviors as a class of activity include the more demanding, emotionally distant, and even skeptical modes of interpersonal behavior, as well as the more commonly accepted human relations modes of interpersonal understanding.

There was also a third dimension of managerial behavior, one which we had expected initially along with the now revised people-ideas dimension. This was the influence dimension, which had taking the initiative or directing others as one pole, and subordinating one's self or reacting to the influence of others, as the opposite. From this analysis, we concluded that our empirically derived dimensions of managerial and professional behavior represented three distinctive kinds of behaviors which constitute different kinds of competences for the individual in the organization and present different developmental tasks for him in his career. We called these performances social, technical, and directive. Our data indicated that the manner in which the individual resolves potential conflict among the three roles, toward integration, toward polarization, or toward withdrawal, is related to his overall effectiveness in his job. Furthermore, our cross-sectional data, by age groups, suggested tendencies for individuals to specialize by age in one or another of these three roles.

We worked with the top management in both the bank and the department store to establish performance rating scales which would be relevant both to our own work and to the organization's interests. In both organizations, technical, social, and initiative performances were seen by the top management as important components of the managers' overall value. However, the relative importance of each of the three kinds of performances as components of total performance varied from job to job within each of the organizations, and varied from age group to age group within the jobs.[11]

The Relationships Among the Three Role Performances

Some form of social performance is required of every person in his relations in work, as well as in the other aspects of living, above and beyond his purely technical contributions. The manager's handling of the social aspects of his work can be observed and described easily, thanks to abundant observation techniques, self-report measurement devices, and existing theories of interpersonal and social behavior.[12] The managers we interviewed described it also, in their own ways, but varied in the degree to which they accepted it, regardless of their particular way of handling the alternatives within it, as a relevant part of their overall work role. Thus, regardless of whether a man behaved trusting or skeptically toward others, or varied from situation to situation in this respect, he could still view his social activity as within his main line of work or as a distraction from it.

When perceived at some stage of his development as relevant to his work, the man acknowledges that the utilzation of social skills, as against technical skills, is a relevant and important aspect of his work. He can,

of course, swing all the way across the scale by denying the utility of technical skills in his work, perhaps as a result of doubts about his technical competences. Thus, an individual can overemphasize the social aspects of his working life as well as the technical aspects. In any case, we view the incorporation of a conscious acceptance of the career relevance of social performances as an important role transition in career development, especially for technically trained and oriented professionals.

Directive performances are a third kind of work activity. They involve directly neither social nor technical performances. They have to do with setting goals,--personal, group, or organizational,--and devoting one's own activities to attempting to influence others' behaviors toward those goals. The opposite response we called reactive, where the individual primarily reacts to others' influence attempts. This important personal and work performance dimension does, of course, indirectly relate to the social and technical functions, in that goals are imbedded in a social context and technical devices are the means for their accomplishment. However, individuals can and do differ from each other in the degree to which they engage in directive role performances and see them as relevant aspects of their work. This is most evident in reports of superiors that their subordinates do not take enough initiative; in our terms, they are not yet accepting directive role performances as meaningful parts of their jobs. Subordinates, of course, can report the same about their superiors--some bosses are seen as not being directive enough with their subordinates or with their superiors, or with both. Again, we view the acceptance of the relevance of directive role performances in one's work as a major role transition in career development.

Polarization and Role Transition

We hypothesize that at various stages of the individual's life, and in various organizational and other situations, individuals tend to polarize around one or the other of these three role performances to the exclusion of the others. The clinical evidence of polarization is the sharp renunciation of an opposite extreme; engineers' attitudes toward administration being our prime example. Some polarize permanently or semipermanently in their lives, such as the technically trained professional who finds it difficult to make the role transitions toward either the social role performance of coaching and developing subordinates, or the directive role performance of initiating a project or assuming supervisory responsibilities. Technicians are not the only victims of permanent polarizations. Some permanent socializers cannot or will not take on either technical or directive responsibilities; they strongly reject involvement in "technical details." Finally, there are many "directors" whose reluctance to take either social or technical performances seriously impedes their effectiveness; they reject both "technical details" and informal socializing as relevant work-related functions.

Some degree of role polarization or commitment is necessary in order for the individual to get any kind of work done, whether it be a predominantly social, technical, or directive task. The key idea here, we believe, is the difference between the tentative polarization required for the discrete and immediate task and the permanent polarization which prevents the individual from making role transitions toward different kinds of role performances at other times, in other situations, in his life.

The dilemma of conflicting role performances are often experienced with sharp feelings of frustrations by managers and professionals on their jobs, according to our interviews with them. The mixed reactions they express toward committee meetings and toward working with consultants and staff specialists indicate that to some, these activities are experienced as distractions and deviations from the main line of their work as they define it. To others, these activities are viewed with interest and as relevant to the main line of their work. One manager, in a department store, reported to us that he did his work after normal working hours, while his regular 9 to 5 hours in the store were spent responding to the demands of others, "fighting fires," and otherwise engaging in activities which he considered to be irrelevant to his work. His primary occupational identity was that of buyer, not manager. His superiors wished that he could become a manager, which, in our terms, would require him to assimilate the social and directive roles into his work identity.

Technically trained professionals such as teachers, nurses, doctors, research scientists, and engineers have been reported in a variety of studies to experience administrative details as frustrating annoyances. We hypothesize from these reports and others that managers and professionals tend to define their personal main line of work either in terms of helping activities with people, the exercise of technical competence, or administrative direction, or some combination of these role performances. A major part of our research involves trying to identify these individual work styles, the variety and frequency with which they occur, the kinds of jobs in which they tend to be engaged, and the overall effectiveness of

the particular styles. We are also investigating the personality and personal correlates of the work styles.

Career Effectiveness, Role Flexibility, and Role Transition

The accumulating evidence indicates that individual effectiveness, as it occurs in the world of managerial and professional work, involves individual activity patterns that cover a broader variety of behaviors than those engaged in by less effective persons.[13] An effective career is marked by role transitions embracing all of the three component performances, technical, social, and directive. This applies not only to people whose major work identity is of a "generalist" nature, such as managers, but also to people engaged in relatively specialized careers such as scientific research.[14] The fact that this phenomenon cuts across traditional occupational identifications leads us to our general notion that personal effectiveness in career is a content-free and culture-free characteristic of mature personality development, involving role transitions in interpersonal behavior and overall activity patterns.

The substantive technical aspects of living and working, such as mathematical problem-solving, the application of occupational techniques to relevant problems, and the use of substantive knowledge, constitute the content dimensions of work. The life-process dimensions, on the other hand, refer to activities and attitudes such as being with people or being alone, being trusting or skeptical of people, acting on things, ideas, or people or a combination of these objects as the primary focus of work, seeking immediate feedback of effects as against being able to tolerate ambiguous abstract feedbacks over a longer period of time, being able to tolerate

ambiguous or abstract feedback as against needing to see concrete results, and so on. It is through these life-process dimensions that personal and social continuity is maintained and integrated in the face of the differentiating, compartmentalizing, and dis-integrating effects of the necessary temporary polarizations in one or the other of the specialized role performances.

Sequences of Role Performances in Career Development

The three role performances, social, technical, and directive, represent not only significant divisions of activity at a particular time in an individual's or organization's life, but may also reflect a natural sequence of individual and group development over time. For the new-born infant, as well as the new member of an existing organization, the social performances are of primary importance. The initial problem for both is to be included socially and to be cared for and guided through dependency. Role differentiation takes place later. To the infant, his differentiated role within the family is not initially as relevant as inclusion or trust, while to the new member of the organization, issues of inclusion, loyalty, and group or organization commitment precede the effective exercise of differentiated technical performances. In the family, which we and other investigators see as providing the developmental prototype for interpersonal processes in groups and organizations, children eventually become differentiated from each other and from the family group as a whole through the development of their unique, specialized performances.

While differentiating himself through technical performances, the developing group member is still protected by superiors, who give him his

periodic care, allowance, or budget with little need for justification on the subordinate's part. In the next stage of development, if and when it occurs, the individuals start to make demands upward, engaging in what we call directive performances. He is no longer merely adjusting or adapting to his surroundings and surrounders, he attempts to influence them in accordance with his own plans, goals, or motives. He justifies himself, having proved his value through social and technical performances, as well as by presenting a coherent set of intentions to those upon whom he starts making demands.

These comments outline what we think is a natural progression of human role performances. This progression begins with the minimal social performances required for inclusion in the work group and organization, then involves role differentiation through distinctive technical performances. This is followed by a second emphasis on social performances, usually involving the establishment of cooperative working relationships with others, both within and outside the individual's work group and organization. Finally, the individual engages in the directive, influencing performances, perhaps in a managerial role or possibly through the equivalent of leadership in his profession.

A similar sequence has been observed to hold in group processes as well, where the group's problems, sequentially encountered, involve 1) membership or social inclusion, 2) task role differentiation, and finally 3) control and direction of activity toward a goal, where interpersonal influence behaviors are salient. In addition, the group as well as the individual requires some means of integrating these phases and performances;

group culture and history is paralleled in individual development by the individual's sense of personal career history.

This progression characterizes both the individual's life as a whole and the problems he encounters with each new work group encounter in his life. His major themes of role polarizations and transitions are re-enacted in small scale with each new work and life situation. Even the experienced manager, in his current life predominantly engaged in directive performances, has to re-engage with the social and technical performances when he enters a new organization or undertakes a new major project. Socially, he has to get to know people and become known by them. Technically, he has to learn what the organization and its members can do as their primary tasks, and how they are organized. Only after this personal re-training, which results from engagement in social and technical performances, can he coherently direct his own and others' activities. Even then, after becoming socialized and technically indoctrinated, he periodically must phase into social and technical performances in order to keep up with both personnel and technology changes.

Conclusions

The picture of role transitions in adult career development which we are beginning to see has been presented in terms of the technical, social, and directive role elements we have found in our work in two studies of managerial behavior and career development. While these particular three elements engage with much prior research and theory, they represent to us only the form in which a universal process of career development takes place in the particular managerial and professional cultures we have

studied. Other forms may be more relevant in other kinds of work and in other cultures. In our own studies, for example, the social performances evaluated by superiors were of a different nature in the bank compared to the department store, while the technical performances were obviously of a different nature. In the bank, the valued social performance was interpersonal competence in negotiation with clients and other members of the organization, while the social performance valued in the store was more of a human relations nature, noted primarily as an absence of conflict with other people. The outline of the universal process would include a dynamic of sequential mastery of developmental tasks derived from the demands of the particular cultural and social settings in which the individual's life goes on, in conjunction with his personal developmental history.

If this description of the process of career development is valid, then it has important implications for both research and practice in career development. It sensitizes us to look for changes in interpersonal networks and individual's personal role definitions in the longitudinal studies which we and most other researchers see as imperative. It suggests patterns of movement and non-movement in adult personality development which may be closely related to the criteria for mental, emotional, and social health, as well as effectiveness in the work role. It calls for the development and use of measurement instruments which are sensitive to change, rather than insensitive to change over the individual's lifetime.

The practices related to career development, ranging from education and guidance through supervisory and personnel practices in organizations, need to begin to take into account explicitly the current phases and the

immediate next steps open to the individual, within a framework of life-long development. In this process, the individual takes his next step from where he happens to be developmentally at the time. This may not correspond to chronological age or educational background or work experience as it tends to be narrowly defined in terms of content. We need to be able to custom-design developmental experiences for each individual according to his needs and potentials. To this end, better theories of adult career development will provide the diagnostic and action frameworks. We need to begin to think in terms of developmental categories appropriate to individuals, rather than restricting ourselves to the global census categories so common in the languages of economic, social, and organizational manpower planning.

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APPENDIX

Table 1

Department Store Managers' Orientations *Toward:

(1=1st preference, 3=3rd preference) Age Group	N	"Things"	"People"
Under 35	34	2.09^{o}	1.85
36 - 52	26	1.81^{o}	1.96^{oo}
Over 52	29	2.38^{o}	1.59^{oo}

^{o} 2-tailed t-test for difference between means: $p \leq .01$
^{oo} 2-tailed t-test for difference between means: $p < .1$

Table 2

Comparison of the Orientations* of the Highest Performance Rated People in Two Different Job Groups

(1 = 1st preference, 3 = 3rd preference)

Job Groups in the Department Store	N	Orientation Toward "Systems"	"People"
Merchandising (Buyers)	8	1.38^{2}	2.88^{3}
Line Managers	5	2.80^{2}	1.20^{3}

$^{2}_{3}$ 2-tailed t-test for difference between means: $p < .002$
2-tailed t-test for difference between means: $p < .002$

* These data came from the questionnaire item shown on the following page.

APPENDIX (continued)

Questionnaire Item from which Orientations Data were Derived:

E. 1. ORIENTATIONS TOWARD WORK

Many managers in organizations tend to hold to one or another of three different views of the main line of their work, often seeing the other aspects of their work as disturbances or distractions from their personal main line. For example:

A	B	C
Jones sees the main line of his job as designing and using efficient reporting and planning systems, and seeing that others cooperate in their use, so that the store's operations will be successful. He is more interested in the results shown by the figures than in other aspects of the store's operations.	Smith sees the main line of his job as acquiring and applying technical knowledge about the items and devices and other physical things involved in successful store operations. John Smith, a buyer, applies this view by trying to become an expert on merchandise, while Dan Smith, in store services, applies this view by trying to become an expert on store layout, fixtures, registers, accounting machines, and so forth.	Brown sees the main line of job as getting along well with people and helping others get along with each other so that the store's operations will be successful. He tries hard to avoid getting into wasteful conflict himself, and works to help settle conflict among others. To him, the human aspects of work are the most important.
Jones sees himself as a "systems" man.	Smith sees himself as a "things" expert.	Brown sees himself as a "people" person.

While each of these views by itself represents an extreme, and most managers find themselves in all three positions from time to time, some managers tend to feel more comfortable, "at home," with one style or the other.

Over some period of time, which of these positions is most like you?

a. Check one from the following pair:

___I am more like A than B
___I am more like B than A

b. Check one from the following pair:

___I am more like B than C
___I am more like C than B

c. Check one from the following pair:

___I am more like A than C
___I am more like C than A